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ABSTRACT

Recognizing that scholastic press associations at the regional, state, and national levels enhance and encourage high school journalism, a study was conducted to update a 1980 survey of scholastic journalism/press associations in the United States. Of the 122 organizations originally polled, 54 were reevaluated either by telephone, personal interview, or a review of the literature provided by the organization. Among the findings were the following: (1) most of the organizations are based at a college or university, usually under the aegis of a journalism school or department of communications; (2) among the services universities provide are mailing services, speakers, contest judges, and printing facilities; (3) most of the organizations are headed by a part-time director who has other college related duties; (4) many press association executives feel that the success (or failure) of an association could be directly attributable to the support provided by the chairman or dean of the school where the association is housed; (5) association activities and services are varied, but the most popular service is student workshops and conventions followed by ratings and writing contests; (6) half of the university based associations sponsor journalism teacher training programs through special workshops or regularly scheduled university courses; and (7) press associations serving only the collegiate press seem to have problems remaining solvent. (HOD)

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THE EMERGENCE AND CHANGING ROLE OF SCHOLASTIC PRESS ASSOCIATIONS

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Abstract

THE EMERGENCE AND CHANGING ROLE OF SCHOLASTIC PRESS ASSOCIATIONS

Scholastic journalism has been an integral part of the school activities movement and school curriculum since the early 1920s. Publications antedate the teaching of journalism in the secondary school and have spawned a special breed of organizations which enhance and encourage school journalism - scholastic press associations - at the regional, state and national level.

By personal interviews, surveys of organizations and review of the literature provided by these groups, the author has provided a context for the development of these organizations.

Of the group, 74 percent are housed at colleges or universities, where the director is a faculty member, administrator or associate staff member. Over half of the organizations serve one state and offer consultation services, speaker's bureau, journalism bibliographies and publications, lending library, job bank, legal assistance and audio-visual loan service.

Scholastic journalism exists in two ways: as extracurricular activity and as a part of curriculum itself. Its emergence into the curriculum came after 135 years of its existence as a school activity in which students and teachers worked informally after school hours.

While recent trends appear to link student activities to the curriculum, history shows that in the early schools, all activities were conducted outside of the curriculum. A self-government plan was in operation at the William Penn Charter School (Pennsylvania) before 1800; other schools with elected student councils and student monitors were evident in New York and Massachusetts (McKown, 1944); football was played as early as 1811 at Exeter Academy; debating, oratory, and student dramatics were popular in most of the academies early in the nineteenth century; the first school newspaper appeared in 1777 (Murphy, 1973).

Scholastic journalism became an integral part of the school activities movement of the twenties and thirties. This movement was the result of a better understanding of the psychology of adolescence and of the proper means of training youth for citizenship (Fretwell, 1931). Educators came to recognize the far-reaching physical, psychological, and social changes which take place with the onset of adolescence and the significance of this period in individual development.

Educational philosophy holds that the purpose of the curriculum and the student activities program are the same: any purpose which might be plausibly cited for a student activity might also be legitimately applied to some classroom-centered activity or program of instruction (Trump, in Harris; 1960).

Development of School Publications and Curriculum

High school publications antedate the teaching of journalism in the secondary school (Scott, 1960). The magazine is considered to be the oldest form of student publication and a direct outgrowth of English composition work (Campbell, 1963).

The oldest known (extant) publication in the United States was the Literary Journal, published June 27, 1829 at the Boston Latin Grammar School. The first secondary school publication was published a year after the Declaration of Independence was signed. It was the Students Gazette, published at the William Penn Charter School in Philadelphia in 1777. A handwritten newspaper, it was a single sheet of rag paper (Campbell, 1963).

Scott (1960) reported that until 1910, no one seemed particularly dissatisfied with school publications. Newspaper and magazine writing was being advanced as a force to motivate English composition.

In 1912, Cora Colbee, English teacher at Salina, Kansas, started the first known high school journalism class. This marked the real beginning of secondary school journalism teaching as distinguished from journalism as merely the preparation and publication of periodicals (Scott, 1960).

In writing about her experiment, Colbee said:

> With the recent growth of a national interest in journalism and with the establishment of the Department of Journalism at the University of Kansas, several Kansas high schools seem simultaneously to have founded courses in journalistic writing (Colbee, 1913).

That same year, at the University of Missouri, Frank Martin published Journalism for Teachers, designed to acquaint teachers with the practical uses of journalism (Martin, 1912).

Journalism took great strides in the 1920s. It was recognized as a

valid course that teachers should be trained to conduct when Grant Hyde offered a seminar for teachers at the University of Wisconsin (Hyde, 1922). The schools of Cleveland, Ohio, had established a model journalism program in 1925 (Smith, 1926). By the end of the decade, schools in California were already incorporating publications into the curriculum (Hill, 1930).

Redford (1936) reported that the first master's thesis in journalism was written at the University of Chicago in 1922 by Ola Floyd Nixon and was titled "Student Publications in the High Schools on the Accredited List of the North Central Association." Two years later, a second thesis appeared at Stanford; written by Roy E. Learned, the title was "A Study of the Student Publications of the Rural High Schools of California." From 1922-1934, 55 master's theses were written on scholastic journalism (see Table 1).

The number of students studying journalism was reported to be 6,639 in 230 schools in four states during the 1927-28 school year ("Statistics," 1929). By 1930, all but eight states had some form of journalism course in the curriculum (Redford, 1936). A year later, 10 states were drafting courses of study: Florida, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Montana, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, and South Dakota. Eight other states were including journalism in the English course of study: Delaware, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, Oregon, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Five states had recognized journalism by recommending a standard textbook or course requirements: Arkansas, California, New York, Utah, and Washington (McCoy, 1931).

By the early 1930s, scholastic journalism—curricular and extracurricular—was well established. In 1939, the first two doctoral disserta-

TABLE 1

Dates and Subjects of Theses on Journalism
1922-1934

	Publications in General	Newspaper	Annual	Magazine	Handbook	Courses and Methods	The Teacher	No Title	Total
1922	1								1
1923									0
1924	1								1
1925	1	1							2
1926			1	1					2
1927	1		1		1	1			4
1928	1	5	2			1	1		10
1929	1	3	2			1			7
1930	2	6	1	1		2			12
1931	1	1	1			2	1		6
1932	1	2	1			2	1		7
1933		1						1	2
1934						1			1
Total	10	19	9	2	1	10	3	1	55

Note: From "A Survey of College and University Theses which Discuss High School Journalism and Publications," by Edward H. Redford, Education, 1936, 57, 239-243.

tions were written on school journalism (Redford and Campbell, 1939). Both studies involved a national survey of high school journalism activities and the relation of school journalism to the curriculum.

During the 1940s and 1950s, school publications contributed to a patriotic upsurge on the part of American youth. During World War II, newspapers and yearbooks became historical records for the school and community in which they were published and provided moral development (Campbell, 1943). One adviser, Ruth Marie Griggs (1945), viewed the yearbook as the patriotic tool for uniting school and community relations. As the newspaper developed in schools, more and more attention was paid to it. Johnson (1941) wrote:

> Much time is spent in teaching students how to appreciate and enjoy the classics and poetry—yet we know that the newspaper eventually becomes the principal item in the literary diet of adults. Proper instruction in the reading and analysis of newspaper and periodical literature could do much to improve the use of the time the average adult devotes to his daily reading.
>
> The way in which to remedy many of the faults of the press is to develop courses which will create a discriminating taste on the part of newspaper readers. A properly organized high school course of this sort would not only do this but contribute much to the vitalizing of courses in civics, history, literature, and in many other fields.

One superintendent of schools in Avon Lake, Ohio, urged his associates to encourage school publications as a training ground for students in English, in journalistic production, photography, business management, finance, and circulation. He believed that the publications could mirror for the community accurately and without prejudice the daily life of the school (King, 1949).

However, with the appearance of Sputnik in 1957, an increased emphasis on science and math caused critics of the schools to question the role of some extracurricular activities, including journalism. Scott

(1956) urged school boards, school administrators, and principals 1) to recognize the educational possibilities of the journalism course, 2) to provide the funds and equipment necessary to make the course effective, 3) to realize that journalism courses and journalistic activities must be supervised by teachers with specialized training. He urged that a well-written, well-edited school newspaper could give the community an accurate picture of the high school and provide a glimpse of the daily environment of its children. Yearbooks, too, he argued, were distinct assets to the school district as a published history of the school. Campbell (1947, 1962) defended the role that schools of journalism were playing in helping secondary school journalism and encouraged new formal training programs for advisers.

In the 1960s and 1970s, students became more aggressive than they had been before, demanding expanded opportunities and alternative education. Some educators argued for helping each student achieve optimum intellectual development (Bruner, 1962).

By 1969, the unrest on college campuses had filtered down to the high schools. Censorship of school publications by high school administrators was brought to the attention of the public as part of the civil rights movement of the period. In addition, school publications felt the impact of alternative, underground newspapers as students discovered that they "did not shed their constitutional rights at the schoolhouse door" (Trager, 1971). The National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education recommended five items for strengthening schools which dealt directly and indirectly with school journalism. Those recommendations pointed to expanding career opportunities, the need for career education, opportunities for broadcast television, the importance of school newspapers,

and the importance of social development through participation in school activities (Brown, 1973).

Many school administrators were afraid of the unregulated power of the school press and hoped that newspapers and yearbooks would die out; many administrators tightened their control over the contents as well as the budgets of school publications. A national study brought the problem of censorship and limited minority access to school publications to the limelight (Nelson, 1974).

Student activities remain a force in the school curriculum of the 1980s. Although recognized by education leaders and parents as a necessary part of the comprehensive high school (Gallup, 1980), such activities continue to be threatened by budget constraints, low minority participation and curriculum restrictions.

As student activities grew during the period 1925-1960, another concept developed that has continued to play an important part in the enhancement of school publications. That development was the scholastic press assocation.

Records at the University of Montana at Missoula report a meeting in 1915 which is credited jointly to Arthur L. Stone, founder of Montana's School of Journalism, and the Montana Chapter of Sigma Delta Chi, a professional journalism society. The organization, which became the Montana Interscholastic Editorial Association, met in 1915 and 1916; because of World War I, further meetings were postponed until 1921 (Murphy, 1974).

The first convention of the Oklahoma Interscholastic Press Association was held at the University of Oklahoma, Norman, in the spring of 1916 with H. H. Herbert, a member of the journalism faculty (and later

dean of the school), as sponsor. The Oklahoma Interscholastic Press Association has been in operation continuously since that date (Murphy, 1974).

In 1921, the Central Interscholastic Press Association (CIPA), the first to cross state lines, was started at the University of Wisconsin at Madison by Willard G. Bleyer. E. Marion Johnson served as director. In 1926, Johnson accepted the chairmanship of the Department of Journalism at the University of Minnestoa. For two years, Johnson and Bleyer worked on a reorganization of the CIPA, which had become too large to remain at the University of Wisconsin. In 1928, Johnson announced the formation of the National Scholastic Press Association (NSPA), which incorporated the CIPA, to be housed at the University of Minnesota ("Succeeding CIPA," 1928). Fred Kildow was appointed director in 1928; the first NSPA convention was held April 12-13, 1929 ("NSP Assn.," 1929).

In 1924, a college student, Joseph M. Murphy, developed plans for a scholastic press association based at his university, Columbia (Hines, 1981). For 60 years, the Columbia Scholastic Press Association has met annually in New York.

The National Association of Journalism Advisers was formed at Madison, Wisconsin in 1924. However, it did not meet again officially until 1929 at the University of Minnesota. Early publications detail various adviser association meetings of the American Association of Teachers of Journalistic Writing in Secondary Schools (Montgomery, 1925), the National Association of High School Teachers and Supervisors of Journalism (Savidge, 1929), and National Association of Journalism Advisers (Troxell, 1931). The name has changed from National Association of Journalism Advisers (1929), to National Association of Journalism

Directors (1934) to the Journalism Education Association (1963) ("16th Annual Report," 1980).

In 1926, advisers meeting at the Columbia Scholastic Press Association convention voted to establish an advisers' organization which was formalized in 1927 as the Columbia School Press Specialists ("Faculty Advisers Organize," 1927). The name was later changed to Columbia Scholastic Press Advisers Association.

George H. Gallup founded Quill and Scroll, the international honor society for high school students, at the State University of Iowa, April 10, 1926 (Grubb, 1956). It moved two times before returning to the University of Iowa at Iowa City.

From 1921-1928, 15 other state associations were formed (Oregon, Minnesota, Michigan, Iowa, North Dakota, Indiana, South Dakota, Pennsylvania, Missouri, Texas (2), Illinois, West Virginia, Arkansas, and Georgia). One regional group, the Southern Interscholastic Press Association (SIPA) was formed (Campbell, 1967).

From 1930-1975, student press organizations continued to serve extracurricular and curricular journalism programs. Three more national groups were formed, the Catholic School Press Association (1931), the National School Yearbook Association (1950), and The Future Journalists of America (1958). Based at the University of Oklahoma, FJA was designed to serve the nation's youth as a career-interest group with chapters located throughout the country (Casey, 1962). These chapters were organized to offer encouragement to students who wanted to pursue a career in journalism.

During that same period, 30 new state and regional groups also organized: San Joaquin Valley, Alabama, St. Bonaventure, Empire State, North

Carolina, Northeastern Ohio, Northwest Ohio, Mississippi, North Central Michigan, Florida, Maryland, Central New York, Wyoming, Wisconsin, Chippewa Valley, Southern Illinois, Central Texas, Central Valley, Eastern Indiana, Southwestern Council of Student Publications, Detroit, Northern Illinois, Delaware Valley, Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Pioneer, Utah, East Bay, Eastern Illinois and Washington, D.C.

Study Methodology

This study was done to update a 1980 survey of scholastic journalism/press associations in the United States. Of the 122 organizations originally polled, 54 (or 44 percent of the original respondents) were re-evaluated either by telephone, personal interview or review of literature provided by the organization.

Although there were a few casualties in the seventies, the fact remains that school press associations are stable, though changing to respond to the needs of members. One of the foremost organizations in the country, the Wisconsin Journalism Teacher-Advisory Council, was a casualty (Tottingham, 1984). Two national organizations, the National School Yearbook/Newspaper Association and the Catholic School Press Association, closed their doors. In most instances, these were due to lack of adequate financial support or the reallocation of resources.

Regional associations, like the Southern Interscholastic Press Association (SIPA) and the Northern Interscholastic Press Association (NIPA) are experiencing growth as editors and advisers look closer to home for workshops and services to fit their needs ("NIPA Memorandum," 1983). The states of Iowa and Wisconsin have gone a step further to offer programs at different locations in the state—which cuts down on driving to various locations.

Colleges and universities continue to be home for student press associations. Seventy-four percent of the organizations are based at a college or university, usually under the aegis of a journalism school or department of communications. Eighteen percent are based at high schools, boards of education, or private residences.

One state organization, Pennsylvania, which has prided itself on its independence, has, in the past three years, formed a closer alliance with a college (Shippensburg).

There were advantages and disadvantages to the college/university relationship, according to the respondents. Among the advantages cited were:

- available resource personnel (10 percent)
- prestige for the organization and the university (9 percent)
- facilities (9 percent)
- continuity for the organization (8 percent)
- visibility (1 percent)

Cited as disadvantages were:

- bureaucracy of higher education (3 percent)
- maintaining a separate identity and freedom (3 percent)
- budget constraints (1 percent)

Because institutions of higher learning have the reputation for being the center for educational and research activities, they are fertile grounds for new ideas and leadership in the fields. They are natural locations for headquarters for these organizations. In addition to the physical plant, these universities provide

- mailing services (51 percent)
- speakers (47 percent)

- contest judges (39 percent)
- printing faciiities (31 percent)

They also provide secretarial support, graduate assistants, telephones and supplies. In many instances funding for these support services are absorbed by the colleges and universities.

Because the majority of the respondents are based at a college or university, the director or supervisor may be a part-time or full-time faculty member and may or may not receive compensation of some type for duties performed.

Seventy-seven percent of the organizations responding were headed by a part-time director who had other college-related duties.

The directors responding were:

- faculty members, administrators, or associate staff (72 percent)
- not employed by the sponsoring institution (9 percent)
- retired faculty (2 percent)
- no response (17 percent)

At colleges and universities that serve as the headquarters for state scholastic press associations, the instructional load that the director must maintain tends to become out of sync with the load that other faculty members maintain:

> The state legislature mandates that each instructor must maintain a 12-credit course load and that means teaching four classes. THSPA (Texas High School Press Association) is not considered as part of that load. In addition, I advise the advertising staff of the campus daily (Sparks, 1984).

In some instances, the load has been clearly defined and can be translated into a specific number of hours worked—but in other cases, it's not as clear.

> Officially, my time is spent teaching (one-half time) and on SDHSPA (South Dakota High School Press Association) (half-time). It becomes increasingly difficult to maintain the program at the same level as we have in the past. We have a part-time secretary and a student who helps to edit the monthly newsletter who is funded by a scholarship (Cline, 1984).

Many press association executives felt that the success (or failure) of an association could be directly attributable to the support provided by the chairman or dean of the school where the association is housed.

> Anything that is done for scholastic journalism in the state of South Carolina is done by the College of Journalism. There are no courses for high school teachers, no certification requirements so we must provide for teachers and students. To do that job, we have wonderful support from our dean (Al Scroggins) that includes a secretary for scholastic journalism programs, wordprocessing and computer equipment. If money becomes available and he knows that we are looking for funds to do something, he makes the money available. We also have a graduate assistant for scholastic programs (Herlong, 1984).

The problems that the Wisconsin State Journalism-Teacher Advisory Council experienced were because of a "poor budget situation" that forced the University to dissolve University Extension and make it part of the Madison campus. The emphasis was then shifted to programs that would earn money for the University.

> We now have a regional scholastic press advisory committee that meets annually to discuss common problems and build morale. We have gone to the regional concept, with programs in Eau Claire (Wisconsin Chippewa Valley), Oshkosh (Northeast Scholastic Press) and Whitewater (Kettle Moraine) and they have been quite successful (Tottingham, 1984).

Fifteen percent of the organizations did not have a director or supervisor, but were served by a group of voluntary officers or governing board of directors. Six of the organizations had full-time directors.

Compensation for the director varied greatly. The statistics show that working for a non-profit, educational organization is not designed

for financial reward. Thirty-two percent responded that they received financial compensation in the form of a salary or honorarium. This compensation ranged from $0 to $1,700 per month, from a yearly honorarium of $300 to $3,000, to a percentage of a college/university salary (usually one-ninth or some portion thereof).

Thirty-two percent reported that compensation is paid by the association membership and services fees. Many reported that the payment of an honorarium or salary was possible because the facilities were provided at no charge to the organization.

How were fees established? Seventy-two percent of the respondents require an annual fee for membership. Eleven percent require no fees. These fees could be charged by school (47 percent), by publication (36 percent), by adviser (20 percent), or any combination.

Membership fees very. Many reported basic membership fees of $10 to $45. Individual membership fees ranged from $1 to $25.

Thirty-nine percent of the organizations responding put some limitations on who may become a member, while 46 percent do not.

Who do these organizations serve? Fifty-one percent reported serving one state; 19 percent reported two or more states; 14 percent served a city, county or region; and 5 percent served the nation.

Association activities and services are varied. The most popular service is student workshops and conventions (91 percent) followed by ratings (79 percent) and writing contests (79 percent). Other services provided include:

- consultation service (77 percent)
- speaker's bureau (53 percent)
- journalism bibliographies for schools (44 percent)

- lending library (37 percent)
- job bank (37 percent)
- investigative/legal activities (30 percent)
- audio-visual loan service (26 percent)
- television-radio programs (4 percent)

One program (South Dakota) offers its members an opportunity to spend the day with a legislator and an All-State publications staff. Another (Maryland) has a Journalist-of-the-Year program in conjunction with the Maryland-Delaware-District of Columbia Press Association, the area trade association.

Forty-nine percent of the university-based associations sponsor journalism teacher training programs by special workshops (53 percent) or regularly scheduled university courses (51 percent). Some associations offer a combination of teacher training programs.

Miscellaneous services members received were awards programs, group rates for sales, curriculum planning and book purchasing services.

Responding to printing and publishing activities, these organizations provided:

- certificates (86 percent)
- newsletter (70 percent)
- membership directory (47 percent)
- career materials (44 percent)
- historical reports (40 percent)
- press cards (30 percent)
- monographs (16 percent)
- other (magazines and district handbooks)

Thirty-five percent of the organizations provided scholarships for

students. Most had to be used for some form of journalism education.

Eighty-eight percent of the organizations spend time working on adviser-administrator relations; 86 percent on cooperating with other press associations; 49 percent encouraged certification of journalism teachers; and 5 percent on seeking recognition of journalism as an academic major.

Are these associations being used to their best advantages? In some instances, no. Organizations based at colleges or universities have been criticized as recruiting tools for academic programs. While these organizations should not have, as their primary function, the recruitment of potential students, a strong high school or college press association will naturally draw students to a particular school. And there is nothing sinister about that.

Press associations serving only the collegiate press seem to have more problems remaining solvent. Many have organized, only to dissolve and later reappear with the same or different name, possibly at another campus (Tennessee Intercollegiate Press Association, Kentucky Intercollegiate Press Association). They frequently move from one campus to another.

Most universities have cooperated in expanding scholastic press associations. There is always the danger of a program growing more than the host school or department finds advisable and money problems, personnel problems and the number of participants forces a change.

Press associations should encourage programs in the high schools, and not be limited to simply appraising sound student publications. It takes qualified personnel to teach students properly and train them for the varied future tasks they will handle.

A few association directors reported that their teaching load included the course taught to all students getting secondary teaching certification in journalism which was a prerequisite to student teaching. This gives the director excellent input into actual teaching methods, textbook and resource direction or choice, and opportunities to "practice what we teach."

There are many sound ideas generated by these organizations, ideas that are not always shared with other organizations. One organization earns extra income with special "fellows" and associate memberships. The fellows are professional newspapers, publishing firms, photographers, among others who pay $100 for a 5-year fellowship. Associate members pay a $25 fee for one year. Both of these memberships qualify the individuals for receiving the newsletter and some form of participation in association activities.

Other organizations actively support the work of the Student Press Law Center, the Washington, D.C.-based student legal service. Some association executives serve on the Student Press Law Center Board of Directors and can make necessary legal information available in their own state or region on short notice.

Nationally, an effort is being made to assist these organizations in being able to do their jobs more efficiently and to serve journalism education where that service is desired. At the 60th anniversary convention of the Columbia Scholastic Press Association (March 1984) delegates at a meeting of school press and adviser association directors urged the revitalization of the National Council of Student Press and Advisers Association, a group formed in 1939 but dormant for the past 10 years. The National Council served as a clearinghouse for information on student press

and advisers associations and two press associations, Maryland and Michigan, were charter members ("A National Council," 1954).

Ed Sullivan, director of the Columbia Scholastic Press Association, has consented to provide the necessary support staff to get the National Council active once again.

While the future looks promising for these associations, the future of education in its present state is constantly under attack. Those attacks will impact on the job being done by individuals dedicated to scholastic journalism. In the next five years, members of the Secondary Education Division of AEJMC must work diligently to continue to strengthen school journalism programs and national, state and regional press associations.

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